DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 190 939 CG 014 586

AUTHOR Perlman, Baron: Hartman, E. Alan
TITLE An Integration of Burnout Into a Stress Model.
INSTITUTION Wisconsin Univ., Oshkosh.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Mental Health (DHEW), Rockville, Md.
PUB DATE 80
GRANT 1-T24-MH-15907-01
NOTE 30p.: Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southeastern Psychological Association (26th, Washington, DC, March 26-29, 1980).

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Adjustment (to Environment): *Coping: Health Personnel: *Human Services: *Job Performance: *Mental Health: Performance Factors: Problem Solving: Psychological Patterns: Responsibility: *Risk: *Stress Variables
IDENTIFIERS *Burnout

ABSTRACT

The term "burnout" has become popular for describing a condition of workers and administrators in professions with a high degree of people contact. Burnout involves feelings of exhaustion, development of chronic negative attitudes about oneself and/or clientele, and lowered job performance. A review of literature reveals that burnout as a concept is limited in definition and usefulness when compared with the concept of stress. Stress research gives more aid in understanding the individual, outcomes of stress, and skilled coping technique development. Burnout can be best understood from a stress conceptualization as a sign of health strain or an outcome of harmful stress. Institutional and organizational environments are important, but the basic responsibility for minimizing harmful stress, health strain, and burnout lies with the individual. It may be necessary to move from the limited writings on burnout to the more extensive and useful research on stress to understand and cope with the problems of burnout. (NRB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

An Integration of Burnout Into a Stress Model

Baron Perlman
Psychology Department

E. Alan Hartman
Psychology Department
College of Business Administration

University of Wisconsin - Oshkosh

CG 014 586

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Baron Perlman

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND THE ERIC SYSTEM CONTRACTORS."

Running head: An Integration of Burnout

Abstract

While in recent years burnout has become a popular term in people contact professions it is the central thesis of this paper that its antecedents, prevention and containment are best understood when placed in a stress perspective. A review of the burnout literature and a definition summarizing various points of agreement are presented. Based on this review, recommendations are made to help prevent or cope with burnout.

An Integration of Burnout into a Stress Model

Over the last five years the term "burned out" has become popular for describing a condition of workers and administrators in those professions with a high degree of people contact (nursing, teaching, mental health care, and police). The prominence of burnout as a concept and phenomena needs little documentation (Fill, 1974; Freudenberger, 1974, 1975; Maslach, 1976, 1978a, 1978b, 1979, Note 1; Maslach & Jackson, 1978, 1979, in press; Maslach & Pines, 1977; Pines & Maslach, 1978, in press; Teacher Burnout, 1979; Warnath & Shelton, 1976). This concern about burnout is a function of both the character of the helping professions and a general phenomenon in our society (Maslach, Note 2). Human services have grown in importance; the psychological burden on those providing such services is heavy. Characteristics of public sector organizations (Maloof, 1975) further serve to place such burden on administrators as well. Generally as a nation we are becoming more concerned about the physical and psychological effects of stress for all workers, including professionals and managers (ABC Evening News, Note 3; Beehr & Newman, 1978; Bishop 1979; Cherniss, Egnatios, & Wacker, 1976; Cooper & Payne, 1978; McGrath, 1976; McLean, 1974, 1978; Monat & Lazarus, 1978; Newman & Beehr, 1979). What seems to have happened is that stresses on health care, people contact providers have in recent years become more intense and/or

more acknowledged and that these professionals became so concerned about stress in their work that a constellation of responses to stress was given a name, "burnout".

Definition of Burnout

Among the many theoretical articles written about burnout two have most explicitly defined its components (Freudenberger, 1975; Maslach, 1976). Freudenberger (1975) offered a detailed definition focusing on the individual. Burnout involves wearing out, failing (as to cease functioning), becoming exhausted, and it occurs when excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources are made. Freudenberger described the dedicated, need for control, authoritarian or committed (work is everything) worker who takes on too much, too often, too intensely. According to Freudenberger this intense, high energy, compulsive worker with high, if not unreachable expectations often burns out.

Dovetailing with Freudenberger is the work of Maslach (1976) who focused on (a) the detached, dehumanizing feelings which may accompany burnout and (b) ways of coping with burnout. Maslach viewed burnout as a syndrome of feelings and behaviors which are a response to chronic sources of emotional tension and stress. Distancing from clients and work is described both as a sign of burnout and also as a means of coping with stresses of care giving work. Like Freudenberger, Maslach concurs that a feeling of not having control over one's work leads to burnout.

Table 1 presents a review of those characteristics identified by Freudenberger and Maslach. These components of burnout can be divided into three categories: (a) physiological, focusing on physical symptoms; (b) affective-cognitive, focusing on attitudes and feelings; and (c) behavioral, focusing on behaviors symptomatic of burnout. Although there is some overlap between Freudenberger and Maslach the two authors tend to concentrate on independent aspects of burnout. It could be argued that some of the affective and cognitive components as described could be equated, e.g., emotional exhaustion with depression, however, the authors do not indicate that they are identical and thus are treated separately here. There does seem to be general agreement that the state of being "burned out" includes feelings of exhaustion, development of chronic negative attitudes about oneself and/or clientele, and lowered job performance. Let us therefore define burnout as a state which must include the presence of these three components.

Insert Table 1 about here

According to Maslach (Note 2) these components of burnout are not an all or nothing condition but each may be viewed as lying on a continuum of low to high. Her point is well taken but specification of what combination of high and low components are prevalent within various people oriented professions is needed. Additionally, while these components shed some light

on the parameters of being burned out they reveal little about the process of how individuals arrive at or could prevent burnout. We contend this can be best understood from a stress conceptualization.

Organizational Research

Three recent studies have provided data supporting the conceptualization of burnout as a specific type of stress reaction. Cherniss, Egnatios, and Wacker (1976) summarized results of interviews with public sector professionals. They reported that role conflict and ambiguity were prevalent in this type of position, particularly for newer professionals, and they cited Katz and Kahn (1966) concerning the impact of role conflict and ambiguity. Cherniss et al. indicated that two methods were employed by these professionals to cope with stress. These two coping methods, assigning blame to the victim and dehumanizing the victim, are both cited by Maslach as symptoms of burnout.

Karasek (1979) utilizing national survey data from the United States and Sweden demonstrated that components of (a) job demands such as individual skills, work load, unexpected tasks, job related personal conflict, accomplishing the task and pressure for output; and (b) job decision making latitude factors such as decision authority, intellectual discretion, skill, task organization, time pacing, influence on organizational policy and control over potential uncertainties were related to strain. The components of strain he enumerates are synonymous with some components burnout listed in Table 1, e.g., exhaustion, depression, dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and pill useage. In other words, by utilizing an organizational and stress perspective Karasek defines much of the syndrome of burnout. Not only this

but a closer analysis of the components of job demands and decision authority seems relevant to people contact workers.

Maslach has provided data to support her conceptualization of "burnout" (Pines & Maslach, 1978; Maslach & Jackson, in press). Pines and Maslach obtained data from 76 staff members of a variety of organizations. These data focused on characteristics of the organization, work, patients and the respondents. Consistent with Karasek's (1979) research on stress work characteristics reflecting role overload (larger patient/staff ratios, longer working hours, higher frequency of staff meetings and fewer opportunities to leave work) were correlated with negative feelings about work.

The second study by Maslach (Maslach & Jackson, in press) explored the underlying dimensions of "burnout". With a sample of 1025 and an instrument of 25 items a factor analysis resulted in three factors with an eigenvalue greater than one. The three factors were labeled Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment. The first two factors reflect the consistency in the literature displayed in Table 1. The third scale contains items which reflect a self report of good job performance (e.g., I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients). Because the scale was composed of negative loadings those scoring high on the scale were less "burned out" and thus those who perceived they were not performing well would be characterized as being more burned out. This is consistent with the integration of the definitions of burnout presented earlier.

Conceptually burnout and the concept of health strain (experiencing harmful stress) (Appley & Trumbull, 1967; Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison & Pinneau, 1975) appear to be synonymous:

> Health strain refers to the deviation from normal responses in the person . . . deviations may be (1) psychological responses such as job dissatisfaction, depression, low self-esteem and unsolved problems; (2) physiological responses such as high blood pressure, change in blood eosinophils, and elevated serum cholesterol; and (3) behavioral responses such as heavy smoking, stuttering, and dispensary visits. (Harrison, 1978, p. 173).

Stress Model

Figure 1 presents a conceptual overview of stress. This model is adapted with major revisions from a paradigm by House and Wells (1978) and is similar to models recently proposed by Beehr and Newman (1979) and Matteson and Ivancevich (1979). As the model shows, individual characteristics and work and social environments are important for the perception and impact of stress. It cannot be overemphasized that experiencing stress and one's reaction to stress depend on perceiving and defining a situation as stressful (McGrath, 1970; McMichael, 1978; Monat & Lazarus, 1977).

Insert Figure 1 about here

Degree Situation is Conducive to Stress

Stress literature indicates two major types of situations in which stress is likely to occur. In the first an individual's skills and abilities are not sufficient to meet the perceived or real organizational demands (Harrison, 1978). In the second type of situation the individual's work does not meet his/her needs and values. It is the first type of situation which has received the greatest attention in the literature (Karasek, 1979). The research by Karasek concerning decision making latitude indicated that little ability to make decisions coupled with high job demand resulted in high stress. This seems particularly applicable to the people oriented public sector professional who has little ability to make decisions yet experiences high demands to perform.

The second possible source of stress, which is not depicted in the model, is the degree to which the organization cannot meet the needs or values of the individual. Realistically, meeting needs and values has a maximum probability of occuring when opportunity exists for a person given his/her internal dynamics and makeup and external social/work environment to satisfy themselves. For example, the individual with needs to feel safe or approved of (in a psychological sense) could meet this need if he/she worked in an organization which was personal, supportive, and had clear communication and if he/she had warm supportive family and friends. Obviously if this need is too strong no amount of supportive behavior by others can override

the person's intrapsychic structure which keeps giving messages that more support is needed. On the other hand, such a person may have reasonable levels of this need but be unable to meet it because he/she works in an impersonal organization and has few or no friends and family to offer support. Thus "realistic" implies a balance between strength of need or value with work and social environment and the person's psychological makeup.

Many people contact professionals believe that through their work they can help society in general, their individual clientele, and meet their own needs. Is this realistic, can these values be pursued and attained? It could be this contributes to the stress such professionals experience.

In summary stress results from an inadequate fit between the person and the work environment. The first type of stress focuses on the discrepancy between demands made by the organization and what the individual is capable (ability and time) of providing. The second type results from the organization not being able to meet the expectations, needs and values of the individual. A good fit occurs when the organization can provide the "supplies" (to meet needs and values) wanted by the person.

Level of Perceived Stress

Many situations which are conducive to stress do not result in perceived stress. Moving from one to the other is dependent on a person's values, needs, background, organizational commitment and work group norms, supervision, and opportunities for advancement. Little research exists which reviews the transition from situations conducive

to stress to the perception of stress. Most research begins with the perception of stress and then studies either the outcomes of this perception of the perceived antecedents of stress. Therefore the relationships presented in Figure 1 concerning the effects of individual and organizational variables on perceived stress represent hypotheses.

Responses to Stress

Responses to stress fall into three major categories (physiological, behavioral, and affective/cognitive). One of the major responses to stress is physiological, including heart problems, ulcers, asthma, raised levels of certain blood components, etc. Monat and Lazarus (1978) detail three ways stress can be related to physiology. In the first, it is known that an individual in stressful situations may respond by major outpourings of hormones which can dramatically alter bodily processes. Also coping techniques such as obtaining minimal rest, increasing smoking behavior or drug usage may be damaging to health. Finally, it is possible to minimize the significance of various symptoms of stress. Pain or illness may be interpreted in such a way that medical aid is neglected.

Behavioral responses to stress can include new behaviors such as the person who never smoked cigarettes who starts, or a person who never used alcoholic or other drug substances begins to do so. More common perhaps is the exacerbation of already existing behaviors such as increased drug usage, smoking behavior, etc. Existing behaviors may also be given up such as physical exercise or other coping techniques. On the other hand,

if someone is attempting to cope with stress, physical exercise such as jogging may become a new behavior or the individual may turn to meditation, use of biofeedback, etc. to "keep in touch" with themselves.

Affective and cognitive responses to stress are heterogeneous. If stress is increasing, affect may become more liable or the individual may become hostile, depressed, or visibly anxious. As Ellis (1978) points out, cognitive messages may begin that it is not OK to be under stress and a vicious circle is begun where a person begins to worry about worrying. Opposed to this, cognitive messages may help manage stress such as telling oneself the stress will end in time, that one has made it in the past, that it is time to explore some personal/organizational options to the present situation.

Outcomes of Stress

Depending on perceptions, personal traits, organizational traits, responses to stress, and organizational responses to an individual's responses, outcomes of responses can be noted. Job performance and satisfaction level may go up if stress has been adequately managed and changes made for the better. Or they may decrease if stress continues. If the later exists, a person may be absent physically or psychologically from work, or if the person is at work she/he contributes little. Burnout may result. Finally, leaving a job may be a valid response to stress.

The existence of burnout indicates individuals in the people contact professions are responding to subjective and cognitive appraisals of threat. They are either experiencing or anticipating deprivation of opportunities to satisfy interpersonal, physiological or psychological needs and values.

Insights into the inter-relationship of person/work environment and social/family environment would be maximized by a synthesis of the burnout and stress literature.

As noted above prolonged tension and stress can lead to falling satisfaction. Recently writings (Dehlinger & Perlman, 1978; Sarason, 1977) and research (Cherniss & Egnatios, 1978; Perlman, Hartman, & Theyel, Note 4; Sarata, 1974, 1977) have focused on one type of people contact professional, the mental health worker and administrator. The research has consistently found that mental health workers and administrators have lower job satisfaction than individuals with comparable education in other careers. Sarata (1977) presented the only exception with only part of his sample supporting the above statement. Are these professionals, therefore, in a state of chronic stress which eventuates itself in low job satisfaction? It appears this is a viable hypothesis and one best explored by investigating the process and effects of chronic stress and burnout.

Coping

Individuals may spotaneously rehabilitate from or escape from harmful stress because of changes in their work, social or family environments such as the appearance of new influential others in their life. But it is usually by actively attempting to impinge on the objective situation (work, family or social environments), feelings, cognitions or behaviors (Kroeler, 1963), which is known as coping, that stress is

lessened or minimized. For example, McMichael (1978) presents a number of studies which lend support to the hypothesis that supportive social relationships can protect an individual from detrimental effects of occupation stressors. The stress model in Figure 1 enumerates numerous variables related to organization and self which must be considered before coping strategies can be begun. This stress perspective integrates individual characteristics, work organization, and social environment, all of which determine effectiveness of coping.

McGrath's (1970 cognitive appraisal theme points to the fact that it is probable each individual has a threshhold or tolerance for stress depending on the kinds of threat which are encountered and perceived. Maslach and Freudenberger believe that people contact workers are vulnerable to too much client contact, too many demands placed on them by society and clientele; while Scholom and Perlman (1979) believe it is these individuals' needs for appreciation and values of high work performance, constant giving to others, and fear or hope of indispensibility at work which cause problems. The important issue is not merely defining these but looking at how they can be confronted or changed.

Inherent in a discussion of vulnerability to stress is data providing norms (Tinbergen, 1974) delineating levels of normal stress and types of working conditions for people contact professionals. Without such

information (and the data is lacking) it becomes difficult to assess how well one is coping with the interaction of personal and social variables within the job environment. One cannot state whether (all things considered) one is doing well or one is doing worse than can be expected. Given the importance of such cognitive statements in mediating affect and perceptions of stress, it is important that such norms be established.

An organization may want to address sources of managerial and white collar worker stress. These include (a) " . . . Mental and physical health effects . . . disruptive influences on the individual manager, . . . real cost to the organization." (Cooper & Marshall, 1978, p. 81);

factors intrinsic to the job: too much work, time pressured, and too many decisions, work overload, too much to do and/or too much difficult work; (c) role in the organization: role ambiguity (inadequate information about one's work role, lack of clarity of work objectives and responsibilities), role conflict (who should do what, doing things one does not want to), responsibility for people; (d) relationships at work: boss, subordinates and colleagues including low or high trust, supportiveness and interest in listening; (e) career development: lack of job security, early retirement, etc. and status incongruity including under or over promotion; (f) organizational structure and climate: being in the organization, threats to an individual's freedom, autonomy, and identity, little or no decision making, lack of a sense of belonging, and participation (which is of critical importance); (g) extra organization sources of stress: life crises, family problems, etc.

Administrators would be well put to focus upon their own mental health, to be sensitive to conditions which may influence the mental health of their subordinates, to develop effective leadership behaviors to avoid stress, to consider needs of subordinators, to reward those who cope well, and to explore Management by Objectives (Glaser & Backer, 1979; Newman & Beehr, 1979) only recently employed in public sector organizations. This procedure could be used for setting of personal goals concerning life in general; we believe it is possible to help subordinates deal with stress and to avoid its harmful effects.

Lastly, an organization can bear responsibility for attempting to reduce job stress of its employees through careful selection. Harrison (1978) emphasizes that job stress will not be reduced by general programs but that the fit between individual and job can be carefully considered during the hiring process. Selection issues would include the demands of the job relative to the individual's perceived and real abilities, and the "supplies" the job offers for meeting the needs and values of the worker. Monitoring this person-work fit over time would also help the employee, as both worker and job change. Career counseling would also be helpful for those already employed including consideration of mid-career changes and long term planning by individuals of the needs and values they want met in a job.

Limitations exist of course with the success of organizations to minimize employee stress. Some, given the nature of their needs and values, will experience stress no matter what is done. Job demands may limit alternatives available to meeting employee needs and it is impossible to "tailor" each job to an individual who holds this role.

Conclusion

It is our belief that responsibility for minimizing harmful stress lies with both individuals and organizations. Maslach (Note 1) emphasized that interpersonal and situation variables are important contributions to stress. Individual responsibility for burnout also remains.

> People select the environments to which they must respond; they shape their commerce with it, plan, choose, avoid, tolerate, postpone, escape, demolish, manipulate their attention and also deceive themselves about what is happening, as much as possible casting the relationship in ways that fit their needs and premises about themselves in the world. (Lazarus, 1978, p. 149)

Burnout is best understood as one subset of stress reactions: responses to chronic emotional stress "prevalent" among workers in people contact occupations. Other stress research and writings must not be ignored even if their primary focus and context is not burnout. These data and conceptualizations on the causes, antecedents, and correlates of harmful stress and strategies on its constraint and prevention aid in understanding the process of burnout. This would include the individual

and the organization; the process which takes place resulting in outcomes to stress, coping, modification of expectations, insights into the work/family environment, pursuit of health, defensive operations, flexibility in working and living, work and life satisfaction, rehabilitation from stress versus its prevention, meaning of somatic complaints, perspective and pace in one's life (Henderson 1974, 1976), monitoring of feelings, and utilization of social support.

Reference Notes

1. Maslach, C. Personal communication. March 2, 1979.

2. Maslach, C. Burn-Out: A social psychological analysis. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, August 1977.

3. ABC Evening News, Stress in America, April 1979.

4. Perlman, B., Hartman, E.A., & Theyel, P. Job satisfaction and attitudes of professionals in two community mental health centers. Paper presented at the meeting of the Southeastern Psychological Association, New Orleans, March 1979.

References

Appley, M.H., & Trumbull, R. On the concept of psychological stress. In M.H. Appley & R. Trumbull (Eds.), Psychological stress: Issues in research. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1967, 5-11.

Beehr, T.A., & Newman, J.E. Job stress, employees' health, and organizational effectiveness: A facet analysis, model and literature review. Personnel Psychology, 1978, 31, 655-699.

Bishop, J.E. Age of anxiety: Stress and how it affects our lives. Wall Street Journal, April 2, 5, 10, 16, 1979.

Caplan, R.D., Cobb, S., French, J.R.P. Jr., Harrison, R.V., & Pinneau, S.R. Jr. Job demands and worker health: Main effects and occupational differences (Catalog No. HE 20.7111:J57, Stock No. 1733-00083).

Cherniss, C., & Egnatios, E. Is there job satisfaction in community mental health? Community Mental Health Journal, 1978, 14, 309-318.

Cherniss, C., Egnatios, E., & Wacker S. Job stress and career development in new public professionals. Professional Psychology, 1976, 7, 428-436.

Cooper, C.L., & Marshall, J. Sources of managerial and white collar stress. In C.L. Cooper & R. Payne (Eds.), Stress at work. N.Y.: Wiley, 1978.

Dehlinger, J., & Perlman, B. Job satisfaction in mental health agencies. Administration in Mental Health, 1978, 5, 120-139.

Ellis, A. What people can do for themselves to cope with stress. In C.L. Cooper & R. Payne (Eds.), Stress at work. N.Y.: Wiley, 1978, 209-222.

Fill J.H. An epidemic of madness: The confessions of a perpetrator. Human Behavior, March 1974, 40-47.

Freudenberger, H.J. Staff burn-out. Journal of Social Issues, 1974 30, 159-165.

Freudenberger, H.J. The staff burn-out syndrome in alternative institutions. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1975, 12, 73-82.

Glaser, E.M., & Bacher, T.E. Organization development in mental health services. Administration in Mental Health, 1979, 6, 195-215.

Harrison, R.V. Person-environment fit and job stress. In C.L. Cooper & R. Payne (Eds.), Stress at work. N.Y.: Wiley, 1978, 175-205.

Henderson, J. Run gently, run long. Mountain View, California: World Publications, 1974.

Henderson, J. The long run solution. Mountain View, California: World Publications, 1976.

House, J.S., & Wells, J.A. Occupational stress, social support, and health. In A. McLean (Ed.), Reducing occupational stress: Proceedings of a conference (DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 78-140). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1978, 8-29.

Karasek, K.A. Jr. Job demands, job decision, latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1979, 24, 285-308.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R.L. The social psychology of organizations. N.Y.: Wiley, 1966.

Kroeler, T.C. The coping functions of ego mechanisms. In R. White (Ed.), The study of lives. N.Y.: Atherton Press, 1963, 178-198.

Lazarus, R.S. Cognitive and coping processes in emotion. In A. Monta & R.S. Lazarus (Eds.), Stress and coping: An anthology. N.Y.: Columbia U. Press, 1977, 145-158.

McGrath, J.E. Social and psychological factors in stress. N.Y.: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 1970.

McLean, A. (Ed.), Occupational stress. Springfield, Ill.: Thomas, 1974.

McLean, A. (Ed.), Reducing occupational stress; Proceedings of a Conference (DHEW (NIOSH) Publication No. 78-140). Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April 1978.

McMichael, A.J. Personality, behavioral, and situational modifiers of work stressors. In C.L. Cooper & R. Payne (Eds.), Stress at Work. N.Y.: Wiley, 1978, 81-105.

Maloof, B.A. Pecularities of human service bureaucracies. Administration in Mental Health, Fall 1975, 21-26.

Maslach, C. Burned-out. Human Behavior, September 1976, 5, 16-22.

Maslach, C. The client role in staff burn-out. Journal of Social Issues, 1978, 34, 11-124. (a)

Maslach, C. Job burnout: How people cope. Public Welfare, 1978, 36, 56-58. (b)

Maslach, C. The burn-out syndrome and patient care. In C. Garfield (Ed.), Stress and survival. St. Louis: Mosby, 1979.

Maslach C., & Jackson, S.W. Lawyer burnout. Barrister, 1978, 8, 52-54.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S.E. The personal costs of burnout: The case of the cop. Psychology Today, May 1979, 12(12), 59-62.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S.W. The measurement of experienced burnout. Journal of Occupational Behavior, in press.

Maslach, C., & Pines, A. The burn-out syndrome in the day care setting. Child Care Quarterly, 1977, 6, 100-113.

Matteson, M.T. & Ivancevich, J.M. Organizational stressors and heart disease: A research model. Academy of Management Review, 1979, 4, 347-357.

Monat, A., & Lazarus, R.S. Stress and coping - Some current issues and controversies. In A. Monat & R.S. Lazarus (Eds.), Stress and coping: An anthology. N.Y.: Columbia U. Press, 1977, 1-11.

Newman, J.E., & Beehr, T.A. Personal and organizational strategies for handling job stress: A review of research and opinion. Personnel Psychology, 1979, 32, 1-43.

Pines, A., & Maslach, C. Characteristics of staff burn-out in mental health settings. Hospital & Community Psychiatry, 1978, 29, 233-237.

Pines, A., & Maslach, C. Combatting staff burn-out in a child care center: A case study. Child Care Quarterly, 1979, in press.

Sarason, S.B. Work, aging and social change, N.Y.: Free Press, 1977.

Sarata, B.V.P. Job characteristics, work satisfactions and task involvement as correlates of service delivery strategies. American Journal of Community Psychology, 1977, 5, 99-110.

Scholom, A., & Perlman, B. The forgotten staff: Who cares for the care givers? Administration in Mental Health, 1979, 7, 21-31.

Selye, H. Selections from the Stress of Life. In A. Monat & R.S. Lazarus (Eds.), Stress and coping: An anthology. N.Y.: Columbia U. Press, 1977, 17-35.

Teacher burnout: How to cope when your world goes black: Instructor special report. Instructor, January 1979, 56-62.

Tinbergen, N. Ethology and stress diseases. Science, July 1974, 185, 20-23.

Warnath, C.F., & Shelton, J.L. The ultimate disappointment: The burned out counselor. Personnel and Guidance Journal, December 1976, 172-175.

Footnotes

This review was supported in part by Mental Health Services Manpower Research & Demonstration Projects, National Institute of Mental Health, grant number 1 T24 MH 15907-01, Baron Perlman & E. Alan Hartman, Co-Principal Investigators, and in part by the Faculty Development Program, University of Wisconsin - Oshkosh.

Requests for reprints should be sent to Baron Perlman, Department of Psychology, University of Wisconsin - Oshkosh, Oshkosh, WI 54901.

Table 1

Definition of Burnout

Burnout Components	Maslach	Freudenberger
Physiological		
Physical ailments	*	*
Exhaustion	*	*
Sleeplessness		*
Affective - Cognitive		
Low morale	*	
Emotional Exhaustion	*	
Loss of concern and feelings	*	
Cynicism	*	*
Negative self concept	*	
Increased emotionality		*
Suspiciousness		*
Overconfidence		*
Dehumanizing clientele	*	
Depression		*
Rigidity		*
Feelings of "locked in"		
Behavioral		
Low job performance	*	*
Absenteeism	*	
More time spent on job		*
Leave job	*	
Drug use		*

Figure Caption

Figure 1. A perceptual - feedback stress paradigm.

A PERCEPTUAL - FEEDBACK STRESS PARADIGM